A study of the relationship between father-absent homes and father-present homes and the academic performance and social adjustment of black middle school students

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A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER-ABSENT HOMES AND FATHER-PRESENT HOMES AND THE ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT OF BLACK MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS

The College of William and Mary in Virginia

University Microfilms International 300 N. Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106

Ed.D. 1981
A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER-ABSENT HOMES AND FATHER-PRESENT HOMES AND THE ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT OF BLACK MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS

A Dissertation
Presented to
The Faculty of the School of Education
The College of William and Mary in Virginia

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by
Joe Louis Simmons

September 1981
We the undersigned do certify that we have read this dissertation and that in our individual opinions it is acceptable in both scope and quality as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.

Accepted September 1981 by

Robert Maidment
Professor of Education

William F. Losito
Associate Professor of Education

Royce W. Chesser
Professor of Education and Chairman of Doctoral Committee
Dedication

This study is dedicated to Mary Frances Powell Simmons, my mother, who has always been understanding, patient, and a reservoir of love and support.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Several persons have contributed in one way or another to this study. Included among them are the contact persons, the students and administrators, in each of the schools that participated in this investigation. A particular debt of gratitude is hereby expressed to the members of my committee: Professors Royce W. Chesser, Robert Maidment and William F. Losito. I would also like to express particular and sincere appreciation to Professor Royce W. Chesser for the guidance, support and understanding that he has given to me throughout my stay at the College of William and Mary, and especially during this investigation. He will always be remembered as a gentleman and a scholar.

A special thanks is extended to Evelyn C. Crawley who gave her competence to the typing of this manuscript.

Finally, to Marjorie, my wife, my daughters, Charmaygne and Jennifer and my grandson, Marc, I am grateful beyond words for the sacrifices they very willingly made. Their patience, love and understanding were my constant support.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The family might very well be the most important social institution in the American society today. The church and the school, as important as they are as social institutions, receive their meaning and impetus from the family. Yet the family has changed since its inception and continues to change at an accelerated rate, thus causing concern among many scholars, social scientists, religious leaders and educators. Kohn (1979) quoted Weiss' feelings on the subject. "The family and society are changing. The schools must adapt to the largest changes in society" (p. 50).

"In the United States", reported Weiss (1979), "approximately one single parent in twelve is a man" (p. 14). This suggests that only 8% of all the single parents are men and 92% of all single parents are women. Marino (1976) supported Weiss' findings and offered a reason for the preponderance of female-headed households when she stated, "the majority of one parent families in the United States consists of a mother with one or more children, which is frequently associated with courts which grant custody of children to mothers in cases of separation or divorce" (p. 166). This is one of the reasons which prompted this study of the father-absent home as it relates to academic performance.
Norton (1979) stated:

The proportion of children under eighteen (all children of all races) living with two parents who have been married only once and are still married to each other may be expected to decline to 56 percent by 1990 as compared to 73 percent in 1960. The situation for black children is even more extreme, in as much as only 45 percent of them are now living with two parents. Unless this trend changes radically, only about one-third of the nation's black children will be living with both natural parents, in their first marriage by the year 1990. (p. 34)

Lincoln (1971) reported "the divorce rate among Negro families is 5.1 percent compared to 3.8 percent among whites. The rate of desertion - the poor man's divorce - is even higher" (p. 159). The fact that father absence affects a larger percent of black children than any other children was a second reason which prompted this study of the black father-absent home as it relates to academic performance.

Statement of the problem. The purpose of this study was to determine whether certain variables, utilized as a group, discriminated between black middle school children from father-absent homes and black middle school children from father-present homes. The selected variables that were used are ability, achievement, grade
point average, attendance, number of siblings, sex, age, the level of aggression, and the level of anxiety.

More specifically stated, the purpose of this study was to determine whether the following questions, when answered and utilized in combination, discriminated between the academic performance and social adjustment of black middle school children from father-absent homes and the academic performance and social adjustment of black middle school children from father-present homes: (a) Do students from father-absent homes score lower than students from father-present homes on the mathematics and reading areas and the composite scores of the standardized Science Research Associate (SRA) Achievement Series? (b) Do students from father-absent homes score lower than students from father-present homes as measured by the Short Test of Educational Ability (STEA), a group ability test? (c) Do students from father-absent homes maintain a lower grade point average (GPA) than students from father-present homes? (d) Do students from father-absent homes demonstrate a higher level of aggressive behavior than students from father-present homes as measured by the Aggression Scale (A. S.)? (e) Do students from father-absent homes demonstrate a higher level of anxiety than students from father-present homes as measured by the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI-X)? (f) Do
students from father-absent homes come from larger families
(total number of siblings) than students from father-present homes?

(g) Do students from father-absent homes demonstrate a lower
level of attendance than students from father-present homes?

(h) Do boys from father-absent homes perform lower on the
selected variables than girls from father-absent homes?

Need for the study. First, researchers forecast that the
single parent home could become the rule rather than the exception.
The rate of growth of the number of single parent homes is
unprecedented. Already 11 million children are growing up in
single parent homes, and the total number increases by at least
one million youngsters each year. It was suggested by Norton
(1979) that unless this trend changes radically, only about one-third
of the nation's black children will be living with both natural parents
by the year 1990 (p. 34).

Second, while research has been conducted in this general area
(the single parent and achievement and/or adjustment), the findings,
conclusions and implications are inconsistent, contradictory and
inconclusive.

Third, of the many studies conducted in this general area, less
than 25 percent have been focused on black children and their families
in general and less than one percent on black middle school children
and their families in specific. Billingsley (1968) generalized "the Negro family as an institution has been virtually ignored by students of group life in America. The principal reason for this failure seems to be associated with the fact that studies in this area, like those in other areas of human life, are highly influenced by the political, religious and philosophical ideologies of the authors" (p. 61). In the small number of studies which dealt with the black middle school students exclusively a very limited number of dependent variables were employed. Quarles (1967) observed "when we pick up a social science book, we look in the index under 'Negro,' it will read, 'see Slavery,' 'see Crime,' 'see Juvenile Delinquency,' perhaps, 'see Commission on Civil Disorders,' perhaps see anything except the Negro" (p. 32).

Fourth, in many urban schools a large number of students achieve below the 50 percentile on standardized tests; and over 40% of the students come from father-absent homes. Is there a relationship between the two? If administrators are to administer effectively and appropriately the schools, answers to these questions are needed.

Fifth, since many existing studies may not have external validity for the general population, it is important that this group in particular be studied.
Theoretical rationale. Researchers have demonstrated that father absence has had no detrimental effect on the performance of children on intellectual and achievement measures. While many and varied factors contribute to poor performance of children on various school measures, father absence is not a significant factor. Coleman (1966) stated "contrary to much that has been written, the structural integrity of the home (principally the father's presence or absence) shows very little relationship to achievement for Negroes" (p. 302).

Solomon, Hirsch, Scheinfeld and Jackson (1972) pointed out "efforts to relate indexes of children's school achievement and intelligence to family characteristics have produced conflicting results. The potentially harmful effects of father absence, for example, are not consistently found" (pp. 462-463). Solomon et al further concluded:

The relative unimportance of parental arrangement in the present data [no significant effect on achievement was found for father absence], coupled with the similar findings reported by Coleman et al leads to the conclusion that the quality of the child's interaction with the adults present in his home may be a stronger influence on
achievement than the particular set of structural relationships that they represent. (p. 466)

Finally, Herzog and Sudia (1970), (cited in Sciara, 1975) after reviewing several studies concerned with father absence, reported "with regard to academic performance, it seems unlikely that father absence in itself would show significant relation to poorer school achievement, if relevant variables (including type of father absence and SES) were adequately controlled" (p. 61).

Santrock (1972) studied 343 lower-class junior high school children of both sexes. The sample was composed of 57 father-present children as opposed to 286 father-absent children. Santrock used the third and sixth grade Stanford Achievement Test scores and the Otis IQ results as dependent measures. He concluded that father absence was related to lower third grade achievement for boys and girls. Absence of the father due to divorce, desertion, or separation had a larger negative effect than absence of father due to death (pp. 455-469).

Deutsch & Brown (1964) studied 440 black and white, male and female, urban public school children in grades one and five. Of these children, 317 came from a father-present family configuration, and 123 came from a father-absent family configuration. They found that children with fathers in the home scored
higher on the Lordge-Thorndike I.Q. measure than did the children whose fathers were absent (p. 29).

Blanchard & Biller (1971) conducted a study using 44 working and lower-middle class third grade boys as their sample. The dependent measures analyzed were the scores on the Stanford Achievement Test and grade point averages. They concluded that the findings were consistent with previous studies in which it has been suggested that father absence or father unavailability can interfere with academic performance. With I.Q. matching, the present study indicated that the father-absent subjects were not suffering from general intelligence ability deficiency. Such findings may be interpreted as suggesting that compared to boys from families where the father is absent, boys from father-present families are more likely to actualize their intellectual potential (pp. 301-305).

Jantz and Sciara (1975) studied 773 father-present and 300 father-absent black female and male fourth graders in model cities schools. The Metropolitan Achievement Test in the third and fourth grades was used as the dependent measure. They concluded that father presence was associated with higher achievement scores particularly for female students and for students with IQ's above 100 (pp. 468-471).
In conclusion, some researchers have demonstrated that father-absent children achieved lower on achievement measures than father-present children while other researchers have demonstrated that father's presence or absence shows very little, if any, relationship to achievement. These conflicting results could conceivably be attributed to a limited number of variables being utilized and to these variables being analyzed separately or in isolation. It was felt by this researcher that if the aforementioned variables were utilized in combination they could reveal the relationship of these variables to father absence and achievement and the extent of the relationship of each variable to father absence.

**General Hypotheses.** (1) Selected variables (ability, achievement, grade point average, attendance, number of siblings, sex, age, the level of aggression, and the level of anxiety) utilized in combination will discriminate between the black middle school students from father-absent homes and black middle school students from father-present homes. (2) Selected variables (ability, achievement, grade point average, attendance, number of siblings, age, the level of aggression, and the level of anxiety) utilized in combination will discriminate between black middle school boys from father-absent homes and black middle school girls from
father-absent homes.

Sample and data-gathering procedures. The representative sample resulted from a 20 percent random sampling of the black eighth grade population of the eight regular middle schools of an urban district in central Virginia. The black eighth grade population in the regular middle schools consisted of approximately 1958 students which resulted in a 352 student sample. Thirty-six students were excluded from this investigation because of insufficient data. The sample (316 students) was divided into two groups; a father-absent group and a father-present group.

Members of the sample were interviewed to determine the presence or absence of father. All other data were secured from cumulative records, attendance records and tests administered. Data collected were: (a) the results of the mathematics and reading areas and the composite scores of the SRA Achievement Series, (b) the results of the standardized STEA, an ability test, both of which were administered in the fall of 1980, (c) attendance information, (d) grade point average in English, mathematics, social studies and science for the sixth and seventh grades, (e) the level of anxiety as revealed by the STAI-X which was administered January 1981, and (f) the level of aggression as revealed by the A.S. which was administered in January of 1981,
(g) personal data - date of birth, age, sex, number of siblings and (h) the presence or absence of father.

**Definition of terms.** For the purpose of this study, the following definitions of terms were adopted:

**Father-absent home.** This term refers to a home in which the student is living with his mother only. No attempt was made to differentiate between the causes (divorce, separation, death, illegitimacy) of the father's absence.

**Academic performance.** This term refers to what the student actually accomplishes (standardized achievement scores, G.P.A.), attendance and adjustment (anxiety and aggression levels) as distinguished from potential ability, capacity or aptitude.

**Ability.** This term refers to the intellectual potential of the student as measured by the STEA, an ability test.

**Limitations.** No attempt was made to determine the length of time that the father had been missing from the home.

This study considered only those students currently enrolled in the eighth grade in the eight middle schools in an urban district in central Virginia, and was limited to an analysis of the variables previously identified. No attempt was made to match individuals. The technique of randomization was employed.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Both published and unpublished literature were reviewed to determine the prevailing as well as the traditional thinking significant to the problem studied. A review of the literature covered the following areas:

1. The family in general
2. The black matriarchal family
3. Significant statistics on the one-parent family
4. The relationship of father absence to intelligence and academic performance
5. The relationship of father absence to children's personality and social adjustment
6. The relationship of socio-economic status (SES) to academic performance and social adjustment.

The Family in General

McNeal (1973) concluded that the family as we know it today extends back over one million years. Laws governing the relationship between family members with reference to divorce, alimony, desertion and property rights have been on the books of civilizations for more than 4,000 years (p. 1).
Rice (1970), cited in McNeal (1973), asserted "today it is universally accepted that the stability of the family and home is an essential element of any civilized society. Whatever happens to weaken the family bonds harms the body politic" (p. 11). Goode (1971), speaking more specifically, stated "as the basic unit of socialization for young, the family needs the presence of both parents if children are to learn the values and expectations of society."

There are obvious deviations of the traditional family: they are the communal-type family, the Jones-type family (Guyana), and the family where the sexually cohabiting adults are not legally married but maintain a family-like arrangement. Tufte and Meyerhoff (1979) recounted "in examining the literature of the family we are immediately overwhelmed with the contradictory claims and interpretations, and this applies to purportedly factual as well as artistic and humanistic approaches" (p. 1). However, the majority of the members of the society in which we live can identify with Murdock (1949) when he concluded "the family is a social group characterized by a common residence, economic cooperation and reproduction. It includes adults of both sexes, at least two of whom are married and maintain a socially approved sexual relationship, and one or more children own or adopted, of the sexually cohabita-
While there is much discussion as to what the family is or is not, Tufte and Meyerhoff (1979) decided:

Neither is there agreement on the family's current state of health. There are scholars that claim that the family is imperiled, shrinking, on the verge of collapse or disappearance. Others, with as much authority, assert that the family is merely in flux, responsive to altered external conditions. Its changes reflect its viability. It is, they say, notoriously flexible and indeed there is even reason to think the family is more important than it ever was. (p. 2)

**Significant Statistics on the One-Parent Family**

It has been suggested that much of the child's personality, attitudes and behavior in general, are set by the age of three. Where does he spend the majority of this very early childhood, and how is he influenced by it? Obviously, the majority of this time is spent in the home with members of his family. Sciara and Jantz (1974) testified "as concerned educators and social scientists continue to explore viable avenues for increasing or equalizing educational opportunities, more attention has focused on the child's first source of education - his family" (p. 221). In a similar vein,
Houts (1979) wrote "the best teachers are the ones God gave us" (p. 10). Not only is the home the initial source of education, but it also serves as a source of adjustment and motivation throughout much of the child's life. Baller (1968) stated "the home is the earliest source of learning experience, and continues to be the major one through childhood and early adolescence" (p. 389).

The family occupies a very important and high position in our hierarchy of important social institutions. What effect does a breakdown in the conventional structure of the family have on its children in general and on its children's academic performance in specific? By breakdown, it is meant the loss of one of the family's parents. Farber (1964) commented "since a family is usually regarded as 'broken' or incomplete when either a father-husband or mother-wife is not present, these would be considered as crucial family members." According to Kohn (1979), "nothing is more traumatic for a child than losing a parent." At the same time, Kohn (1979) quoted Weiss:

I can't think of anything worse than losing a parent. Kids depend on parents for security. A bonding system has developed over evolutionary time, and it is the most
forceful of emotional systems. No other system can
override it, and that system can override any other. It
is very deep. (p. 41)

Very similarly Middlewood (1975) stated "a child needs an opportu-
nity to develop a sense of personal worth if it is to function
creatively and happily in adulthood." Most importantly, Middlewood
(1957) suggested that this sense of worth is initiated in the home
(pp. 8-11).

In identifying homes/families that have resulted from a change
in their structure, such terms as one-parent, single-parent,
father/mother-absent, matriarchal, matrifocal, matriarchal/
paternal-deprived, unstructured, broken and female-headed homes/
households have been used. The one factor that is common among
these homes is the physical absence of one of the parents. However,
in many instances the commonality ends here. Weiss (1979) decided:

The most important difference among single parents is the
route they took to the one-parent status. In the United
States, about 70 percent of the one-parent households are
created by the voluntary separation of parents. About 14
percent are widowed. Another 10 percent were never at
any point married to their children's other parent. The
final six percent consists of those who are only temporarily separated.  (p. 14)

Marino (1976) took it a step further when she concluded "although parent absence is often considered a relatively simple and consistent phenomenon, a wide variety of types of parent absenteeism exists, which in turn, may have differential effects on various children" (p. 165).

Divorce, legal separation, desertion, death and illegitimacy have left a large number of single parents and, probably more important, a large number of children living in broken homes. The statistics resulting from these occurrences are revealing.

Houts (1979) reported "there are over six million of these families [the American family minus one parent] in the United States today, and living with them over eleven million children. Most of the children go to school" (p. 10). Herzog (1972), just seven years earlier, using the Current Population Reports as her source, wrote "in the United States seven million children under eighteen years of age are living with their mothers and without their fathers" (p. 175).

Ross (1975) concluded "over the past decade, female-headed families with children have grown almost ten times as fast as two-
parent families. As a result, by the mid-1970's one out of every seven children in the United States lived in a family where, whether because of death, divorce, separation, or out-of-wedlock birth, the father was absent" (p. 1).

According to Tufte (1979), "today one in every three marriages ends in divorce, and it is estimated that almost half of the children born in the 1970's will spend part of their childhood in one-parent households" (p. 292). The figures are expected to be even higher for more recent marriages. Preston (1975) suggested "perhaps half of all recent marriages will experience a disruption compared to less than a sixth for cohorts married 20 years ago" (p. 435).

Houts (1979) asserted "in 1978, over one million marriages ended in divorce, which in a single year altered the lives of over one million children" (p. 10). It was concluded by Ross (1975) "children living with one-parent increased twelve times as rapidly as children living with both parents between 1960 and 1970" (p. 129).

While these statistics concerning single parent families are alarming to some, thought provoking to others and fascinating to still others, when the black single parent is looked at in isolation the problem appears to be more acute and the statistics more revealing. Ross (1975) attested "since 1960, non-white female-
headed families with children have grown twice as fast as white-female-headed families with children" (p. 13).

While there are obviously many social reasons for the rapid increase in number of black-female-headed households, the lack of adequate medical care seems to play an important role. Bumpass (1978) indicated "in a sample of children born between 1955-59, three percent of the white children's fathers had died by 1973 compared to six percent of the black children's."

"By 1973," as reported by Ross (1975), "one-third of all non-white families and nearly two-thirds of non-white families that were poor and had children were headed by women" (p. 67). This compares to 9.4 percent of all white families that were headed by a white female (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1972, p. 100).

Norton (1979) commented "although there were more white women in the single-parent situation in 1978 (3.5 million) than black women (1.6 million), they made up only 13 percent of all white families with children as compared to 45 percent of blacks."

Bumpass (1978) predicted "three out of every five black children will experience marital disruption before age 16 providing that the rate of 1971-1973 holds throughout their lifetime. A similar figure for whites is one in six. Social scientists suggests that the reasons for this rapid increase in the number of children growing
up in father-absent homes and the fact that it affects a larger percentage of blacks than whites are minifold and not easily and succinctly explained. Ross (1975), however, offered one explanation:

The limited analysis we have done on this question leads us to speculate that the recent higher rate of growth of female-headed households among blacks is related to the continuing urbanization of the black population, to increased sexual activity and improved health, combined with low level effective contraception among teenagers, to bleak employment prospects for black men with little education; and to the greater availability of income outside of marriage for the poorest group of black women.

(p. 88)

Although the broken home is a rapidly growing phenomenon and touches all races and socio-economic groups, it is not a new phenomenon. According to Ross (1975) "anthropologists and social historians point out that such families have existed throughout human history" (p. 3). The family is the institution which is responsible for bonding its members together, creating in each of its members a sense of worth, and developing attitudes and the personality. Since all of the major social institutions of American
society are influenced by the apparent changes in the structure of the family, it would appear to be logical and appropriate to try to determine the effect, if any, these changes in the family structure have upon the academic performance and the social adjustment of black children.

The Black Matriarchal Family

"For all income levels, the rate of broken families [matriarchal] is higher among Negroes" (Billingsley, 1968, p. 64). There should be no doubt as to the veracity of this finding. Many statistics previously cited support this finding. It is therefore appropriate to investigate the causes for the large number of broken black families and the implications this phenomenon has for the academic performance and social adjustment of black children.

In a culture or society where the patriarchal conventional family is the standard, the black matriarchal family does not fit into this trend and very often finds itself in an unfavorable and unfortunate situation. Along this line Lincoln (1971) concluded:

The United States family is primarily patriarchal. Even families where husband and wife supposedly share equally in making decisions, our society regards the male as more equal. But the majority of Negro families do not follow United States custom and are inappropriately
penalized. The matriarchal Negro household is at a
distinct disadvantage in competing for its rightful share of
benefits offered by American society. (p. 156)

The black matriarchal family is not a new phenomenon. While
much has been said about this situation, a cloak of suspicion, mis-
information and confusion very often surrounds the black matriarch
and her family. Billingsley (1968) wrote:

There are roughly 15 million Negro families in the United
States comprising over 90 percent of the 22 million
Negroes in the country. It would be difficult indeed to get
an adequate description of the Negro people. And it would
be equally difficult to understand the role and place of the
Negro people without an appreciation of Negro family life
in America.

Similarly and more specifically Rainwater (1967) stated "as long as
Negroes have been in America, their marital and family pattern
have been subjects of curiosity and amusement, moral indignation
and self congratulation, puzzlement and frustration, concern and
guilt on the part of white America" (p. 362). Hare and Hare (1970)
described the black female situation this way:

Ever since she first stepped off the slave ship, the black
woman has occupied a peculiar position in American society, not only did she play a leading part in helping her race survive slavery, she has had to be, under many circumstances and in many ways, both male and female in the socio-economic arena. For her efforts to compensate for her predicament, she has been labeled "aggressive" or "matriarchal" by white scholars and castrating female by blacks. (p. 93)

As the literature is researched on the black family one thing becomes obvious. The black family has not been afforded the opportunity in this country to grow as a paternally-led conventional family. This was true during slavery and during subsequent eras as well. Lincoln (1971) suggested "the Negro in America was never a 'black Anglo-Saxon,' though sometimes he tried to be. He was never simply another ethnic group to be assimilated into the mainstream. His family structure is unique in American society" (p. 155).

In a similar vein Sciara (1975) concluded:

Father absence among black families is not a natural phenomenon, but one which can be traced historically to slavery when white masters forced the break-up of families, favored the females, and provided for the powerless black male an emasculating cultural heritage.
A female dominated family system for blacks became the norm, not because it was desired, but because it was forced upon them. (p. 45)

Frazier (1959) proposed "slavery and its practices regarding the sole treatment of blacks produced a deviant family form in which the woman was dominant" (p. 65).

The black male in America has often been characterized and stereotyped as being lazy, shiftless and unwilling to share in stabilizing the family unit and assuming his share of responsibility for the betterment of the family in general. However, the literature suggested that this characterizing and stereotyping resulted from being unable rather than unwilling to share in the responsibility of stabilizing the family unit and the betterment of the family in general. Ross (1975) stated "in other words it appears to be economic rather than culture which is responsible for the greater instability found among black families" (p. 74).

Clarke (1965) reported:

Because of the system of slavery in which the Negro male was used systematically as a stud and the Negro female used primarily for purposes of breeding or for gratification of the white male, the only source of family continuity was through the female. The pressure to find relief from
his intolerable psychological position seems directly related to the continued high incidence of desertions and broken homes in Negro ghettos.

Similarly, Lincoln (1971) concluded "the blame [for the large percentage of black matriarchal homes] rests on the horrors of a slave society which stripped the Negro male of his masculinity and condemned him to eunuch-like existence in a culture which venerates masculine primacy" (p. 156-159). According to LeMaster (1970) "as a result of all the factors that produced the matricentric family system it has been extremely difficult for the low income black father to assume his parental role" (p. 104). Rose (1968) stipulated "the greater employment discrimination against the Negro male as compared to the Negro female has lowered the prestige of lower-class Negro males in the eyes of their mates and children" (pp. 172-173).

Because slaves were considered property rather than humans, the laws which governed the institution of marriage were not applicable to blacks. "When Negroes were slaves neither the law nor the slave owners recognized marriage between slaves. Children were left with their mothers, giving the Negro mother an early, exclusive interest in the family, forcing upon her full responsibility for its care" (Lincoln, 1971, pp. 156-159). In a
similar vein Kardiner and Ovesey, cited in Gutman (1976), suggested "the most rudimentary type of family organization was not permitted to surface, to say nothing of the extensions of the family. The mother-child family with the father either unknown, absent, or if present, incapable of wielding influence, was the only type of family that could survive" (p. XVII). Welsing (1973) put it more succinctly and bluntly when she asserted "black people do not have families - we have survival units. That is all we are allowed to have" (p. 51).

While roots of the black matriarchal home seem to lie in the dark and distant past of slavery, many similar systems have been convened to perpetuate an apparently unwanted and undesirable situation which exists even today. Rainwater (1967) contended:

After emancipation, the cultural mechanisms which Negroes had developed for living the life of victims continued to be serviceable as the victimization process was maintained first under the myths of white supremacy and black inferiority, later by the doctrines of gradualism which covered the fact of no improvement in position, and finally by the modern northern system of ghettoization and indifference. (p. 363)
Arriving at a similar conclusion while perhaps stating it differently, William V. Patrick, of the New Detroit, cited in "The Contenders," Newsweek, 1968, summarized the historical trek and the current plight of American black families when he concluded "first you had slavery. Then you had Jim Crow laws. Then it was called separate but equal. Now it is called law and order" (pp. 21-25). Perhaps it could be called balance the budget today. It should be easily recognized at this point and time that the black matriarchal family is not a natural phenomenon.

Many questions have been asked and some answered about the black matriarchal family, its structure, its economics and the performance and adjustment of its children. Perhaps not enough has been said about the intrinsic fibers which permeate and give it the positive qualities that we have come to believe should be present in a family. These qualities are found in the black family even though the structure of the family differs on occasions from what is considered to be a conventional family. Jackson (1973) concluded that the general similarity of the picture is peppered with incidences of differences. For example, blacks who are alleged fathers of illegitimate children tend to be more supportive of the mothers of their children than are whites;
broken families appear to have far more devastating effect upon whites than upon black children; a larger proportion of aged whites than aged blacks are institutionalized (pp. 273-279).

The Relationship of Father Absence to Intelligence and Academic Performance

Many researchers have found that the father-absent child does not perform as well as the father-present child on intellectual and achievement measures. At the same time there is significant research which demonstrates that father absence had no detrimental effect on the performance of children.

Two of the most publicized and comprehensive research projects, to date, that have addressed the performance of children with reference to family structure are by Moynihan (1965) and by Coleman et al (1966). They also represent a paramount example of conflicting and contradictory findings and consequently demonstrate significantly the pros and cons of the literature.

Moynihan (1965), after examining the 1960 National Census data, found that nearly a quarter of all Negro families were headed by females and concluded "at the heart of the deterioration of the fabric of Negro society is the deterioration of the Negro family; the matrifocal black family is a hindrance to success striving" (p. 1). Arriving at a similar conclusion though stated
differently, Moynihan (1967), cited in Swann (1974), stated "the absence of the father (a substantial minority of black children grow up in families in which the father is absent) contributes to poor scholarship on the part of children and a high rate of delinquency" (pp. 18-24). In a completely different view, after studying the nation's schools, Coleman et al (1966) concluded "contrary to much that has been written, the structural integrity of the home (principally the father's presence or absence) shows very little relationship to achievement for Negroes" (p. 302).

It should be noted that Moynihan's (1965) findings have been questioned by some authors. One reason has been cited by Billingsley (1968) when he pointed out that "because the 25 percent of Negro families headed by females was so much higher than the proportion of white families headed by females, Moynihan paid very little attention to the fact that 75 percent of Negro families met his criteria of stability" (pp. 63-64). Solomon & Mendles (1979) delved deeper and contended "the attacks on "Moynihan Report" centered on his apparent emphasis on family disorganization and chaos as characteristic of black families and the little emphasis given to factors in the social system, particularly the economic system, which produced the behaviors and attitudes described as problems or problem producing" (p. 279).
While the Moynihan study (1965) was debated, it has caused a national awakening. Tufte & Meyerhoff (1979) stated "whatever the difference in the report itself, it can be said without question that it stimulated scores of scholarly research projects aimed at testing its conclusion" (p. 292). Tufte (1979) further stated "the debate [Moynihan (1965)] raised public consciousness about the complexity of the issues involved and the difficulty of being objective and impartial when one studies the family" (p. 6). Similarly, Billingsley (1968) summarized "perhaps the major contribution of the Moynihan Report, is that it brought to the attention of scholars and planners, as well as of the general public, the fact that Negro families are an important part of national life" (p. 76).

However, Sciara (1975) cited several studies which he felt supported the contentions of Moynihan. Aldous (1969) reported that during periods of unemployment or of wife employment, Negro husbands abdicate family responsibility more than white husbands during such periods. Blood & Wolf (1960) found that blue collar Negro husbands participate less than white husbands in family decisions, division of labor and companionship. Hewitt supported the premise that the female-headed family hinders occupational success.

Coleman et al (1966) attached more significance to culture,
socialization, interaction and experience of the child and his family, and concluded that structure was insignificantly related to academic performance. While Coleman has not been questioned to the extent that Moynihan has, he has not gone unscathed. Cummings (1977) stated "despite the ambiguity surrounding the casual relationship between family-socialization experiences and achievement-related personality traits among black students some authors have interpreted Coleman et al (1966) as a wholesale validation of the cultural deprivation theory" (p. 339).

Much of the research conducted in this area has not received as extensive national attention as Moynihan (1965) and Coleman et al (1966). Nevertheless, much of it supports the contention that father-absent children do not perform as well as father-present children, while another body of research contends that father absence has no detrimental effect on children's academic performance. In a very general mode, Becker (1974) stated "the notion that loss or absence of a parent or both parents during the early development of the child is detrimental to certain aspects of his emotional and cognitive growth has an empirical and theoretical basis" (p. 32). In a similar vein Shinn (1978) indicated "researchers have found associations between father absence and relatively poor
performance on cognitive tests for infants and college students and all ages in between" (pp. 295-324).

Becker (1974) concurred when he suggested "studies have linked father absence to the child's intellectual impairment, psychopathology, criminal and antisocial behavior and difficulties in interpersonal relationships" (pp. 32-33). In a similar mode Hamilton (1977) suggested "studies of father absence report detrimental effects on children's aggressive dependency, degree of adjustment or 'psychopathology', delinquency rates, moral behavior, success in the Peace Corps or military, premarital pregnancy rates, masculinity in males, and intellectual performance" (p. 51).

Veasey (1974) contended that children who come from disadvantaged backgrounds where only the mother is present in the home have difficulty in acquiring adequate learning skills. Since one-parent families are less well prepared to provide adequate or favorable conditions for learning, many of these students encounter increasing difficulties in school and drop out (pp. 267-280).

Deutsch and Brown (1964) studied 440 black and white, male and female, urban public school children in grades one and five. Of these children, 317 came from a father-present family configu-
ration, and 123 of these children came from a father-absent family configuration. They found that children with fathers in the home scored higher on the Lordge-Thorndike I.Q. measure than did the children whose fathers were absent (p. 29).

Blanchard and Biller (1971) conducted a study using 44 working and lower-middle class third grade boys as their sample. The dependent measures analyzed were the scores on the Stanford Achievement Test and grade point averages. They concluded that the present findings are consistent with previous studies in which it has been suggested that father absence or father unavailability can interfere with academic performance.

The study indicated that the father-absent subjects were not suffering from general intelligence ability deficiency. Such findings may be interpreted as suggesting that boys from father-present families are more likely to actualize their intellectual potential than boys from father-absent families (pp. 301-305).

Sutton-Smith, Rosenberg, and Landy (1968) examined 1,055 middle-and lower-middle-class male and female college sophomores of whom 760 came from father-present homes and 295 came from father-absent homes. The dependent measure was the American Council on Education Psychological Examination. Sutton-Smith et al decided "father absence does have a negative
influence on cognitive activity, an effect modified by sibling activity" (p. 1220).

Jantz and Sciara (1975) studied 773 father-present and 300 father-absent black female and male fourth graders in model cities schools. The Metropolitan Achievement Test was used as the dependent measure. They concluded that father presence was associated with higher achievement scores particularly for female students and for students with IQ's above 100 (p. 468-471).

In two different studies of Scottish children, Sutherland (1930) reported that in both cases the children from the father-present groups scored significantly higher on achievement measures than did the children from the father-absent groups. Pleas (1976), after comparing the performance of high school single-parent students with high school two-parent students, decided "consistent negative differences exist between the school performance of single-parent students and two-parent students" (p. 1975).

Sciara (1977), after studying the lack of achievement of black children in Title I schools, reported the following:

1. The father absence rate of black children in this school system averaged 30%. Yet in remedial reading in Title I programs they averaged 58%. 57% were enrolled in
Title I math.

2. Children placed in Title I remedial programs in this school district are those who are judged to be of normal intelligence, but whose achievement test scores are below average.

3. The over representation of black children from father-absent homes in Title I remedial programs would tend to support the notion that father absence does have a definite effect on some children's academic achievement.

4. Father presence would seem to foster greater cohesiveness of family, a greater variety of family activities, a greater quantity of adult-child verbal interaction and a greater experimental variety than would father absence.

Sciara and Jantz (1974) investigated father absence and its effect on the reading achievement of black children. They suggested that although it is necessary to exercise caution in interpreting the direct effect of family type on achievement due to a host of other factors probably associated with family disruption, the findings suggest a positive association between intact families and achievement, particularly for Negroes (pp. 221-227).

Kelly and Wallerstein (1979) studied 60 northern California divorced families and stated "according to their teachers, about
two-thirds of all the youngsters showed some notable change in school following their parents' separation. While the youngsters differed in the intensity and the manner in which they expressed their distress, responses affecting academic achievement were the most common" (p. 55).

Ferri (1967) generalized "the....study of children in one-parent families had shown that those who lost their mother and those who were fatherless as a result of divorce or separation were doing rather less well in school than children who had experienced no family disruption" (p. 51). Blau & Duncan (1967), after studying the relationship between the level of education of fathers and sons, found the sons from broken families completed fewer years of education than did sons of unbroken families even taking into account the fathers' own occupation and education (p. 336). Hamilton (1977), in general terms, concluded "surely the vast group of parents that dismiss the task of 'raising' children as a simple matter of common sense do not imagine the possibility that the father's role is related to whether his children are higher in verbal or mathematic ability" (p. 37).

Maxwell (1961) compared 292 male and female, neurotic English children between the ages of eight and thirteen with the established norms of British and American children on the
Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC). In over one-half of the ten parts of the test, the neurotic sample was significantly lower. The author concluded that the absence of the father after the age of five was significantly related to the scores on the comprehensive, picture completion and arrangement, coding and vocabulary subtests (pp. 300-307). Mackie, Maxwell and Rafferty (1967), after studying the psychological development of culturally disadvantaged kindergarten children and using the influence of the family and the school as dependent variables, reported that of the 60 black preschool subjects from low income families children from father-present homes did better than those from father-absent homes as evidenced by test performance on several instruments.

Parrow (1977) studied twelfth grade black and white boys with reference to race, father absence, and the educational ambition of adolescent males and concluded that there was some evidence that father absence depressed ambition to a greater extent among blacks than whites, at least for boys in the twelfth grade. There is also evidence that black individuals suffer more deleterious consequences as a result of father absence than do white individuals.

Peterson, DeBond, Peterson and Livingston (1966) studied a sample of 74 father-present black and white 11 year old boys and
20 similar father-absent boys using the Metropolitan Achievement Test's scores as a dependent measure. Father presence was positively correlated with achievement for blacks; however, there was a nonsignificant correlation in the same direction for whites in spite of the small variance in the white family configuration (p. 25). Kasdon (1955) compared superior readers among college freshmen from nine colleges in the Los Angeles area to a sample of average readers and concluded that a larger percentage of the superior readers came from unbroken homes (pp. 1785-1786).

Crescimbeni (1964) studied children in grades two through six to determine the effect of parental death, divorce, separation and desertion of one or both parents on the academic achievement of the children. He reported:

1. There was a significant difference in academic achievement, using the Metropolitan Achievement Test as a dependent variable, between children in a one-parent home and children in a two-parent home. Children from the one-parent homes scored lower.

2. There was a significant difference in academic achievement between boys from one-parent homes and boys from two-parent homes. The boys from the two-parent homes scored higher.
Pringle, Butler and Davie (1966) examined 11,000 seven year old English children and concluded that there were fewer good readers and more poor readers among the seven year olds living in "untypical" family situations than among those living with both natural parents.

Santrock (1972) studied 343 lower-class junior high school children of both sexes. The sample was composed of 57 father-present children as opposed to 286 father-absent children. Santrock used the third and sixth grade Stanford Achievement Test scores and the Otis IQ results as dependent measures. He concluded that father absence was related to lower third grade achievement for boys and girls. Absence of the father due to divorce, desertion, or separation had a larger negative effect than absence of father due to death (pp. 455-469).

Ferri (1976) studied eleven year old English children who were fatherless as a result of marital breakdown and reported "the performance in arithmetic was significantly poorer than of children in two-parent families and although the differences were less marked, the findings also suggested that the children were reading less well, too" (p. 119). Biller (1974) stated:

The father's positive involvement facilitates the
development of the boy's cognitive functioning. The father seems to have a particularly significant role in the development of persistence, achievement, motivation and assertive, analytical problem-solving behavior. Father absence has a more negative effect on the lower-class boy's cognitive and academic functioning than it does in the middle-class boy's. (pp. 84, 153)

A superintendent, quoted in Cummings (1977), expressed similar feelings about the lower-class child's academic performance and social adjustment when he asserted:

A victim of his environment, the ghetto child begins school career psychologically, socially and physically disadvantaged. He is oriented to the present rather than the future; to immediate needs rather than delayed gratification to the concrete rather than the abstract. He is often handicapped by limited verbal skills, low self-esteem and a stunted drive toward achievement. (pp. 335-336)

Gordon (1968) concurred when he indicated "young, urban black youths' self-hatred and feeling of incompetent dependence and their angry alienation from social institutions are commonly held to result from their life experiences and to prevent them from taking
advantage of available opportunities" (p. 1).

The research and findings tend to support the notion that father absence is detrimental to the academic performance of children. However, some studies tend to support the assumption that father absence is not detrimental to the academic performance of children.

Solomon, Hirsch, Scheinfeld & Jackson (1972) studied a group of 149 urban ghetto black males and females in the fifth grade who attended a school located on the west side of Chicago during the 1964-65 school year. Several achievement and ability indexes (Lordge-Thorndike, Kuhlman-Anderson, California Achievement Test, GPA) were obtained for all of the subjects. Solomon et al reported that the effects found for sex and family size were as expected and are consistent with results obtained by other researchers. They further concluded that the relative unimportance of parental arrangement in the present data coupled with the similar findings reported by Coleman et al (1972) led to the conclusion that the quality of the child's interaction with the adults present in his home may be a stronger influence on achievement than the particular set of structural relationships that they represent (pp. 462-466).

Wasserman (1972) compared 62 father-absent black boys with 55 father-present boys. The boys ranged from 10-15 years of age and lived in public housing. The dependent variable considered
was their GPA over a three year span. He reported that one of
the principal implications of his findings was that the presence or
absence of fathers fails to discriminate between boys who do
better or worse at school (pp. 137-141).

Solari (1976) compared the achievement of one-parent children
with that of two-parent children. The subjects were 926 students
enrolled in two selected elementary schools in Detroit. The
dependent measure was standardized test results taken from the
school records of April 1975. He concluded that the present
research did not support the hypothesis that two-parent children
show a significantly higher degree of achievement than one-parent
children based on standardized test results. There were
differences, however, that appeared to be individual rather than
group differences (pp. 1391-1392).

It was reported in the *Times Educational Supplement* (March
19, 1976) that when social deprivation was taken into account, the
degree to which having only one parent present affected the
children's progress was slight. Birnbaum (1966) studied 180
male high school students from Los Angeles of whom 90 were
from father-absent homes and a similar number from father-
present homes. He collated GPA and reading and vocabulary
scores. He reported:

1. Membership in a broken home or an unbroken home appears to have little or no relationship to either high or low grades.

2. There seems to be little basis for believing that a home that contains two parents will be more conducive to a higher GPA than a home that has a woman as head of the household.

Armor (1972) concluded, after re-examining Coleman et al (1966), that the family structure does not seem to be an important variable for achievement when black and white schools are separated (p. 214).

In support of Coleman et al (1966), Hanushek (1972) concluded that subsequent analysis of Coleman et al (1966) suggests that father absence per se was not associated with school performance. That is, when controls for family SES were introduced, the father's absence was not significantly related to test scores (p. 140).

Similarly, Tabler (1968) found that father-absent children did more poorly than father-present children but the differences vanished when a control for race was introduced. Additionally, Mackler (1971) judged that what counted in achievement was the "real quality of home life"—the ways in which the parent or parents expressed their concerns over children's performance. Also,
Goode (1964) akin to Coleman et al, pointed out "it seems likely that role failure within the home has a more destructive impact on children than the withdrawal of one spouse" (p. 102).

Green (1976), in a philosophical mood, inferred:

Most researchers who delve into one-parent families naturally end up finding the problems that they set out to look for. But what if they were open-minded enough to ask, 'Do one-parent families have problems?' The gap father leaves if he departs, will depend almost entirely on the size of the job he did when he was around. (pp. 130-131)

Also, like Coleman et al (1966), Kriesberg & Kriesberg (1972) stated:

One message should be clear. A husbandless mother or a wifeless father is more likely to err in raising children by being overly concerned and pushing too hard than on the contrary. The children do not, in general, suffer great educational hardships as a result of growing up in a broken family. Insofar as there are handicaps, they largely derive from circumstances over which the individual parent has little control. (p. 239)
Similarly, Kriesberg (1970) concluded that on the whole there is little difference between husbandless and married mothers in the educational desires and expectations they have for their children. Many of the difficulties faced by mothers and children in female-headed households are not inherent to that family structure (pp. 249-289).

Wilson (1967), using the Coleman model, studied black and white junior and senior high school students in California. The sample was composed of 552 father-present and 194 father-absent students. The dependent variables were the scores of the first grade California Test of Mental Maturity, third grade and sixth grade Stanford Achievement Test scores and eighth grade Differential Aptitude Test scores. He concluded that father absence was not a critical variable in school performance when sex, race, and the number of siblings in the home were controlled.

Malmquist (1958) examined 399 Swedish children from the first grade using reading as the dependent variable and concluded that there were no significant differences between the reading ability of the children from broken homes when compared to the children from other homes (pp. 69-72).

Mackie, Lloyd, and Rafferty (undated) tested 229 black boys and girls at the end of kindergarten and first grade. The
composition of the sample was 74 father-present youngsters, 99 father-absent youngsters, and 26 father-substitute youngsters. The dependent measure used was the Metropolitan Achievement Test. The researchers contended that father status was unrelated to test performance when mother's education and child's pre-kindergarten education experience were controlled.

Cortes and Fleming (1968), using Kuhlman-Anderson IQ Test and Stanford Achievement Test as dependent measures, studied 35 father-present boys and 35 father-absent boys. The boys were all from a low socio-economic level, living in an urban setting and in the fourth grade. The researchers reported no significant difference between the two groups with reference to academic success.

Kelly, North and Zingler (1965), in a study of the relation of the broken homes to subsequent school behavior, concluded that early separation from one parent was related to lower achievement. As a group, however, children from one-parent homes did not achieve significantly lower scores in reading (pp. 215-219).

While much of the research suggests either that father-absent children did not perform as well or that father absence had no detrimental effect on children's academic performance, there is a body of research which indicates that the data are inconclusive
or mixed at best. Sciara (1975) concluded "as the literature regarding the effects of father absence is examined, a mixed pattern becomes apparent" (p. 48).

Hamilton (1977) contended "differences that are found between children of families with or without fathers offer rather inconclusive evidence of the father's effect on the children." Ross (1975) succinctly said "the findings are clearly mixed" (p. 145).

Cummings (1977) asserted "paradoxically, although a great deal has been made of the high divorce rate and frequent father absences among black families, the relationship of these variables to variations in scholastic performances is not all clear" (p. 337). Similarly, Katz (1967) decided "although some evidence supports the father absence hypothesis, a great deal goes against it" (pp. 19-20). Along the same line, Sciara (1977) concluded "past studies fail to arrive at consistent conclusions regarding the effect of father absence upon the academic achievement of black children."

Sciara (1974) generalized that a review of the literature regarding the effects of father absence reveals a mixed pattern, while the highly controversial study by Moynihan (1966) makes a strong case for the problems resulting from father-absent homes in several areas (pp. 221-227). Deutsch (1960) suggested that broken homes were a contributing factor but not a primary factor.
in the school achievement of the children.

In a comprehensive fashion, Hamilton (1977) concluded:

Father absence is unfortunately one of those gross variables that sounds simpler than it is. The effects vary, depending on the kind of relationship the father had with the children and mother before his absence began, the cause and duration of his absence, and the availability of other adult males to children. Father absence effects vary also with the behavior of the mother during the absence and the socio-economic status of the family as well as other factors. (p. 51)

And finally Shinn (1978) concluded that numerous mediating variables have been proposed to explain the negative association between father absence and children's cognitive performance. Some variables such as the low SES levels of most fatherless homes or decreased amount of parental attention, presumably contribute to general cognitive deficits; others, such as inadequate sex role development or anxiety and stress, are hypothesized to account for different patterns of performance on verbal and quantitative tests. These variables are not mutually exclusive and may in fact reinforce one another (pp. 295-324).
The Relationship of Father Absence to Personality and Social Adjustment

Researchers have found that the father-absent child does not perform as well on personality and adjustment measures as does the father-present child. There are research data which suggest that the findings are inconclusive or even contrary to the first assumption. Green (1976) proposed "obviously, living with mother, instead of living with mother and father, will have a profound effect on a child's personality that will continue into adult life; but exactly what the effect will be can only be guessed at" (p. 140).

Herzog and Sudia (1968), cited in Ferri (1976), declared that the existing data do not permit a decisive answer to questions about the effects of children in father-absent homes. They further pointed out that they did not expect adequate evidence to indicate dramatic differences stemming from the fatherlessness per se. If all the confounding facts could be controlled, children in fatherless homes might be classified as somewhat worse off than children in two-parent homes with regard to some, though by no means all, variables investigated. However, the statistical differences would probably be far less dramatic than generally assumed and might even be negligible (pp. 14-28). Conversely Freud (1944) concluded "the infant's emotional relationship to its father begins
later in life than to its mother, but certainly from the second year onward it is an integral part of its emotional life and a necessary ingredient in the complex forces which work towards the formation of its character and personality" (p. 103).

Kelly and Wallerstein (1979) indicated "some youngsters from father-absent homes retained their ability to function academically but lost considerable ground with classmates because they express their anxieties in ways that other youngsters find jarring" (p. 55). Seudfeld (1967) selected at random thirty-five files of Peace Corps Volunteers of both sexes who were nearing successful completion of their two-year tour, and thirty-four files of those who had returned to the United States prior to the scheduled completion of their tours because of problems of adjustment conduct. Forty-four percent of the unsuccessful volunteers were from father-absent homes as opposed to nine percent of father-present in histories of the successful volunteers. A similar second sample revealed forty-four percent incidences of father absence among the unsuccessful volunteers as compared to fourteen percent for the successful volunteers (pp. 424-425).

McNeal (1973) reported "it is felt that any emotional hazardous situation such as divorce, desertion, separation or death, has an adverse social effect on the child" (p. 41). Weiner
(1973), cited in Marino (1976), contended that single parents must generally assume the roles and responsibilities of both the mother and father which, with limited time and energy, is a difficult task. As a result children of one-parent homes may be neglected emotionally and intellectually (p. 167). Barclay, Stilwell and Barclay (1972) reported that in comparison with father-present elementary school children, father-absent children were rated by their teachers as lower on a number of personality dimensions in personal and social adjustment, and as considerably handicapped in their own self-estimate of skills. Teachers expected less work and effort from these children (pp. 433-446).

Ferri (1976) suggested that frequently the father's role appears to be confined to one of economic support and provision (pp. 12-13). Nash (1965) and Bowlby (1952), cited in Ferri (1976), concluded respectively that the father is regarded almost as a statistical appendage to the family; and the father is of no direct importance to the young child but is of indirect value as an economic support and in his emotional support of the mother (p. 13). In a similar mode Green (1976) stated "as it is, common sense suggests that father's necessity in the family all depends on the individual who is father. The mother who is there is going to be the crucial influence on the growing children, not the father who is not there!"
Wasserman (1972) contended that there is a statistically significant relationship between natal families and current marital status. Women who are brought up within intact families are more likely to be living in one (pp. 137-141).

Russell (1957), after studying 174 children from broken homes and a similar number from intact homes, reported:

1. Children from broken homes exhibited significantly more problems of enuresis, anger, and disobedience if the break was due to divorce or separation.

2. Students from broken homes showed significantly more behavior problems, especially in lying and stealing. (pp. 124-129)

In contrast Ferri (1976), after a long term study of child development in one-parent families, concluded "on the whole...... any differences in behavior and adjustment between children in one-and two-parent families were small in magnitude and our findings have suggested the absence of a parent had not in itself had the overwhelmingly detrimental effect so often attributed to it" (p. 119). Similarly, Wynn (1964) stated "the fatherless child is not a greater risk. Serious mental illness lasting into adult years is less common than the simple unhappiness of a child,
often a reflection of the unhappiness of his mother, and often resulting in unsatisfactory performance at school" (p. 37). Likewise, Sterne (1964) in studying a group of American boys appearing in a juvenile court reported "a break in the home is not in general a crucial factor in the severity of a boy's behavior. Even when a home is broken, it is able to control its children" (p. 96).

While much of the cited literature and research dealt generally with the personality and the adjustment behavior of children, there is a body of research which deals with specific aspects of social adjustment/behavior, namely, juvenile delinquency. Moynihan (1967), cited in Swann (1974), reported that the absence of the father (a substantial minority of black children grow up in families in which the father is absent) contributes to......a high rate of delinquency (pp. 18-24).

McNeal (1973) suggested, in his study of children from broken homes, that the number of juvenile delinquents is two and one half times greater from broken homes than from intact homes (p. 11). Glueck (1950) indicated "the chance that such homes [broken homes] will produce a juvenile delinquent is almost twice as high as the likelihood that an intact home will produce a juvenile delinquent" (p. 91).
Anderson (1968) reported a strong association between father absence in the background of boys and higher delinquency rates (pp. 641-649). In a similar vein Freud (1944) concluded "it is a matter of common knowledge that one cause of the delinquency of adolescents and pre-adolescents in war and post-war periods is the incompleteness of the family setting owing to the father's absence in the Forces" (p. 103).

Green (1976) stated "what prevents children from becoming anti-social is the quality of their home life in its entirety; whether father is there is not the only factor. Some fathers drive their sons to delinquency, and in rare cases even offer a criminal training" (p. 134). Likewise Marino (1976) said "parent absence may be a major contributor to low achievement, personal maladjustment, and delinquency, but clearly not the only factor" (p. 177).

Elliot (1929) compared a group of school girls in Philadelphia from working class families with a group of girls from Sleighton farm, a detention home, who had been identified as sex offenders. Elliot concluded that the uninterrupted school girls had a rate of 22% broken homes as compared to a rate of 50% broken homes from the identified sex offenders. Mangold (1930), after studying
juvenile offenders' court records, reported that broken home was the primary factor in producing juvenile delinquents (p. 409).

Healy and Bronner (1936) contended that broken homes and delinquency are both rooted in other factors that are basic causes of both. They found that after studying 143 cases of delinquents, 91% suffered from major emotional disturbances as compared to only 13% of their non-delinquent controlled group. They also reported that 73% of the juveniles were products of homes that were considered normal or better (pp. 29-30). Sutherland (1949) in his study of "white-collar crime" concluded that delinquent groups were more often products of broken homes than were the non-delinquents (p. 159).

Birnbaum (1966) stated:

As has been apparent, early writers on delinquency were led to believe that broken homes were the most important single factor producing juvenile delinquency. While no one seriously questioned the importance of the family in relation to delinquency, interesting questions have been raised in recent years concerning whether law violations is casually related to the broken homes as such, or whether it is related only to the deeper faults in family relationships. (p. 25)
Robison (1939) in trying to determine why the rate of broken homes among female delinquents was so much higher than among male delinquents found that police hesitated to refer a girl or pre-adolescent to an agency unless she came from a broken family. Consequently, of the female delinquents who were referred to juvenile court, a great proportion were products of broken homes (p. 55-60). Landis (1953), in his study of children from broken and unbroken homes, reported that while there were some significant differences between the groups, in a few areas adolescents from broken homes seemed better adjusted than those from unbroken homes. These adolescents participated more in family councils, more frequently shared their parents' problems, and were less critical of dates and the persons they dated. Also, despite or because of their greater concern about the adequacy of their family incomes and levels of living, youths from broken homes seemed to achieve economic maturity earlier than youths from unbroken homes (p. 40).

There are obviously pros and cons on the effects of father absence on delinquency. Birnbaum (1966) summarized the literature and research when he concluded:

Study after study over a period of thirty years supported the view that in any group of juvenile offenders, the great
majority came from broken homes. Interwoven in the studies showing the broken home to be the main cause, was the ethnic factor of minority groups--Negroes being the group most commonly affected by broken and dis-organized homes and families. Most researchers have continued to report that, although there is no denying the fact that broken homes do exist among juvenile delinquents, the broken home as such is not the important factor. Some studies, particularly the most recent, which include several unpublished doctoral dissertations, have found no significant correlation between broken homes and juvenile delinquency. The main point is that the broken home may be a condition caused by the same factors that caused delinquency--cultural and social conditions transmitted by the family ethnic group, and neighborhood. (pp. 58-60)

In the area of social adjustment and behavior, research has also been conducted on the effects of father absence and the child's sex orientation and/or identification. Green (1976) generalized "there does seem to be some testimony that can't be shrugged off, some residue of evidence that without his father, sexual and personal insecurities may remain with the son into adult life"
(p. 138). Akin to Green, Biller (1971), in a study of junior high school boys, concluded that primary sex-typing occurs within the first six years of life. Consequently, absence of the like-sexed parent seems most disruptive during these years (pp. 178-181). Santrock (1972) reported "due to the significance of the same-sex parent in the child's psychological development, the boy's cognitive development should be influenced by the father's absence more than the girl's" (p. 457).

Hetherington (1973), after studying the effects of father absence on teenaged girls' perception of men in general, reported that twenty-four girls who had lost their fathers through divorce tended to be more clumsily erotic with men. The girls who had lost their fathers through death seemed more fearful and inhibited with men. Girls from both father-absent groups were more anxious on the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale. The researcher further proposed that in both groups the lack of opportunity for constructive interaction with a loving, attentive father, has resulted in apprehension and inadequate skills in relating to males (pp. 47-52). Similarly, Crabtree (1974) stated "the father's approval can enhance a girl's feelings of being worthwhile and give her a positive model of maleness upon which she can base a
relationship with her future husband" (p. 19).

Mead (1971), eluded to the importance of father presence on boys when she declared:

Masculinity is that part of the male's behavior which distinguishes him from a female, in his sexual relations, in fighting and sport. But manhood is that part of a male's behavior which makes him a responsible human being, able to control his sexuality, bridle his aggression, protect and provide for his wife and children and make some positive contribution to the world. (p. 135)

In a similar manner Crabtree (1974) contended "boys need a satisfactory father-figure, model of maleness, if they are to grow into men. Identification with a suitable older male is essential to their healthy development and emotional stability" (p. 19).

Researchers have found that father-absent children are more anxious or have a higher level of anxiety than father-present children. Anxiety, as an adjustment characteristic, was investigated by Koch (1961) when he studied a small sample of pre-school children from divorced homes. He found that they showed a higher level of anxiety than a matched group from intact homes (pp. 225-231). Hetherington (1973) reported that girls from both father-absent groups, divorced and death, were more anxious on
the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (pp. 47-52).

To know that father-absent children have a higher level of anxiety than father-present children is one thing, but to know what effects it has on the children is clearly another thing. Johnson (1969) reported that though the findings are complex, several patterns emerge clearly: (1) the negative correlation typically obtained between test anxiety and both IQ and school achievement increases in magnitude throughout the elementary school years, indicating that the effects of anxiety become increasingly detrimental to adequate school performance throughout the period; (2) extreme shifts in anxiety are related to reciprocal changes in IQ and achievement, so that, for example, a child who decreased markedly in anxiety level over time showed a corresponding increase in IQ and achievement; (3) anxiety depresses reading achievement more noticeable than it affects scores on arithmetic subtests, suggesting that more emphasis and pressure are placed on the child by parent and teacher in the area of reading than other academic skills (pp. 585-586).

Johnson (1969) also reported that boys from homes in which the father was absent showed less aggression in doll play than boys from intact homes and used studies done by Sears, 1951 and
Boch, 1946 to support his contention (p. 576). Although many of the boys used in this study did not have fathers in the homes, they, however, were exposed to aggressive male models in that most were products of the lower socio-economic level. McKee and Leader (1955) reported that more aggression is evident in lower-class children because the lower-class male who serves as the model is seen as typically aggressive, at least in the overt physical mannerism that might prove most significant (pp. 135-142).

The Relationship of Socio-economic Status (SES) to Academic Performance and Social Adjustment

Birnbaum asserted:

The lower-class boy, at a disadvantage in the struggle measured by middle-class values, anxious about the fact that he and his family seem to have lost that struggle, is looking for a solution to his problem of adjustment. He is already handicapped by family and neighborhood experiences which give him inferior resources and limited opportunities for conformity to middle class standards. (pp. 43-44)

Obviously, Birnbaum is suggesting that socio-economic level (SEL) is a factor and a difficult one to overcome.

Bowley (1975) suggested that SEL is perhaps the most impor-
tant of family background factors we have measured (p. 192).

Bockman (1970), cited in Bowley (1975), wrote "it [SEL] is related to most other background measures; indeed, what appears to be 'effects' of other background dimensions can often be attributed equally well (and with greater parsimony) to SEL" (p. 192). Coleman (1966) asserted "it is known that socio-economic factors bear a strong relation to academic achievement" (p. 21).

When the father leaves for whatever reasons, he undoubtedly takes with him much of the resources, and obviously those he leaves behind are affected in some manner. Ferri (1966) succinctly reported "poverty is one common consequence of fatherlessness" (p. 162). Kriesberg & Kriesberg (1972) similarly contended "in reality one of the fundamental problems of female-headed families is their poverty" (p. 229). Along the same line, Veasey (1974) said that one parent's income, especially that of a black mother, is hardly sufficient to support a family of any size (pp. 267-280). Sexton (1961), cited in Veasey (1974), examined school failure as a function of income groups. He reported that by contrast with successful groups of students, failure was more often found in lower income groups.

Middleweek (1974) generally concluded "our society is geared
both economically and socially to the two-parent family. It is becoming more and more important for households to have two wage earners rather than one. The one-parent family does not fit into this neat pattern." In a similar vein, Ross (1975) indicated that a primary effect on children being reared in a fatherless home has to do with the loss of income which a father could provide (p. 13).

Hanushek (1972), in his subsequent analysis of Coleman (1966), suggested that father absence, per se, was not associated with school performance. That is, when controls for family SEL were introduced, the father's absence was not significantly related to test scores (p. 116). In a similar analysis Tabler (1968) found that father-absent children did not do as well as father-present children, but the differences vanished when a control for race was introduced. Smith (1972) concluded, after analyzing the Equality of Educational Opportunity Report "blacks are more influenced by the economic conditions of their homes than are other racial groups" (p. 269).

While much of the research supports the contention that SES is a factor, there is also significant research which suggests otherwise. Seudfeld (1967), in his study of Peace Corp Volunteers,
found that the young people from father-present homes were more successful in that a large majority of them finished their two-year tours of duty. More importantly, he concluded "the results were not highly likely to be due to SEL since nearly all of the volunteers were college graduates" (pp. 424-425).

Birnbaum (1966), in his study dealing with the success of boys in secondary schools as related to SEL, reported that his study confirms other recent studies of SEL and broken homes in that he found little relationship between these circumstances and success in school (p. 128). Mackie et al (undated), after studying the father's influence on the intellectual level of black ghetto children, indicated that although the income level of the father-present homes was almost double to that of the father-absent homes, the correlation between income and IQ was .17.

Santrock (1972) studied the relationship of type and onset of father absence to cognitive development and concluded that an analysis by t-tests indicated no significant socio-economic status, used interchangably with SEL, differences for any intergroup comparisons of IQ and achievement test data.

Jencks (1972) asserted:

We can say that economic inequality is not one of the
major causes of cognitive inequality in America. Random individuals' IQ scores differ by an average of 17 points. Our estimate suggests that the direct and indirect effects of economic inequality have typically caused less than two points of this difference. If we merely equalize everyone's economic status, test score inequality would fall six percent or less. However, if we did the same for genes, test scores would probably fall by 33 to 50 percent. (pp. 31, 108)

SUMMARY

In summary, the findings of research are inconclusive with reference to the effects that father absence has on the child. The literature and studies viewed and analyzed were concerned with the family, the black matriarchal family, intelligence and academic achievement, children's personality and social adjustment and the effects that SES has on these phenomena.

The family as known today extends back over one million years and might be one of the most important social institutions in our culture. There are scholars who claim that the family is imperiled, shrinking, on the verge of collapse or disappearance. Others, with as much authority, assert that the family is merely in flux, responsive to altered external conditions.
Divorce, legal separation, desertion, death and illegitimacy have left a large number of single parents and, probably more important, a large number of children living in broken homes. There are over six million of these families in the United States today, and living with them are over eleven million children. For all income levels, the rate of broken families [matriarchal] is higher among Negroes. Father absence among black families is not a natural phenomenon, but one which can be traced historically to slavery when white masters forced the break-up of families, and provided for the powerless black male an emasculating cultural heritage.

The black matriarchal family is not a new or natural phenomenon, and many reasons have been attributed to its evolution and subsequent growth (Rainwater (1967), Lincoln (1971), and Hare (1970). Although much has been said and written, perhaps the black family in general and the black matriarchal family in particular are still two of the most misunderstood social institutions in American society. This is evidenced by the conflicting findings of Coleman et al (1966) and Moynihan (1965).

Researchers have found that father-absent children did not perform as well on personality and adjustment measures as did
children from father-present homes. Green (1976), Freud (1944), Kelly and Wallerstein (1979), Seufeld (1967), and McNeal (1973). There is also a body of research which suggests that not only is there no significant difference between the social adjustment of father-absent and father-present children but also the father is regarded almost as a statistical appendage to the family. The father is of no direct importance to the young child, but is of indirect value as an economic support and in his emotional support of the mother (Herzog and Sudia (1968), Ferri (1976), Nash (1965), and Bowlby (1952).

Coleman et al (1966) asserted "it is known that socio-economic factors bear a strong relation to academic achievement." Bockman (1970) and Sexton (1961) have published similar findings. However, Birnbaum (1966), Mackie et al (undated), Suedfeld (1967), and Jencks (1972) reported that economic inequality is not one of the major causes of cognitive inequality in America.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted in the regular middle schools of a large urban school division located in central Virginia. Alternative middle schools were not used in this study. The representative sample resulted from a 20 percent random sampling of the black eighth grade population of the eight regular middle schools of the urban district. The vast majority of the students ranged in age from 13-15 years. The majority of the students enrolled fall between the low and low middle SEL. However, the majority of the sample were products of the low SEL.

Procedures. Permission to conduct this study was sought from and granted by the Department of Planning and Development of the selected school division. Members of the sample were interviewed to determine the absence or presence of father. Data collected were: (a) the results of the mathematics and reading areas and the composite scores of the standardized SRA Achievement Series, which was administered in the fall of 1980; (b) the results of the STEA, an ability test, which was administered in the fall of 1980; (c) attendance information; (d) grade point average for English, mathematics, social studies, science and reading for the sixth and
seventh grades; (e) the level of anxiety as revealed by the STAI-X which was administered in January of 1981; (f) the level of aggression as revealed by the Aggression Scale which was administered in January of 1981; (g) personnel data - date of birth, age, sex and number of siblings in household and (h) the presence or absence of father.

The collected data were recorded on a questionnaire form (Student Profile Sheet, Appendix A) and the tests to measure anxiety and aggression were administered by a designated guidance counselor in each middle school. The Student Profile Sheet used to collect the data was designed by the researcher, and field tested for clarity of use and interpretation on those persons responsible for collecting the data. The field testing was done in a meeting prior to the collection of the data.

The data from the Student Profile Sheet were compiled, tabulated and arranged into one of six principal areas of investigation: ability, achievement, attendance, grade point average, level of anxiety and level of aggression. These data were transferred to 80 column IBM cards.

**Ethical safeguards and considerations.** To insure anonymity, names of schools and students were not used in the study. Only
those persons (designated counselor in each building) who
normally have access to these kinds of data were used to collect
needed data.

Instrumentation. The SRA Short Test of Educational Ability
(STEA) is a single score ability test which is designed to provide a
reliable estimate of general educational ability. The STEA
quotient is a standardized score having an arbitrary mean and
standard deviation, with an assumed normal distribution within
each grade. Because students are compared with other students
at their grade level, rather than at their age level as is the
practice with most measures of ability, factors such as retention,
dropouts and special education classes result in an increasing
average quotient score at each grade level. The mean STEA
quotient was set at 100.0 in kindergarten and increased by 0.5
with each grade level to 106 by the end of grade 12 (Using Test
Results, 1972, p. 72).

The standardized SRA Achievement Series is designed to
survey general academic progress. The multi-level edition,
which consists of three separate but overlapping levels of graduated
difficulty, is used in grades 4-9. The Iowa Test of Educational
Development (ITED) assesses achievement in grades 9-12. Areas
in language arts, reading and mathematics constitute the core of these tests. Scores of these three subtests are weighed to provide a composite achievement score.

The test content for the SRA Achievement Series was determined through a four-step process. Basic curriculum outlines and basal textbooks used in an estimated 75 percent of the United States' classrooms were reviewed to develop specifications for the test item writers made up of teachers and professional writers prepared test questions. These items were then reviewed, edited, and pre-tested in school districts across the United States. Statistical and content criteria were used to select those items which would be valid for each subtest.

The SRA Achievement Series was standardized through the random selection and testing of nearly 156,000 students in grades 1-12. Percentiles and grade equivalents were obtained during the national standardization process.

Reliability correlation coefficients were determined using the Kuder-Richardson - 20 formula. The reliability coefficient for the composite achievement score was .98 (Using Test Results, 1972, p. 6).

The Aggression Scale is a self-report of attitudes measuring five aspects of aggression: aggression anxiety, projected
aggression, self-aggression, prosocial aggression and antisocial aggression. For the purpose of this study the subscales were not treated separately, but as a part of a group. The Aggression Scale was modified and entitled "How I Feel" for the purpose of this study (Appendix B). It was field tested on the contact persons. A score of 5 is given to either extreme attitudinal position, "strongly agree" or "strongly disagree." The total score is the sum of the scores for the individual items (Sears, 1961).

The statistics for this scale are based to a large extent on 160 "originals" who had previously been subjects of an experiment by Sears and his colleagues (1957). In terms of demographic features, the follow-up sample "is a surprisingly close representation of the total original group from which it was drawn" (Sears, 1961, pp. 467-468). This finding should give greater credence to the statistics in the reliability and validity of the scale. With the exception of the self-aggression subscale, the corrected reliability coefficient (Spearman-Brown) on odd-even items for all scales were .6 or better (Johnson and Bommorita, 1971, p. 453).

The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory - X (STAI-X) is comprised of separate self-report scales for measuring two distinct anxiety concepts (Appendix C): state anxiety (A-State) and trait anxiety
(A-Trait). Although originally developed as a research instrument for investigating anxiety phenomena in "normal" (non-psychiatrically disturbed) adults the STAI has been found to be useful in the measurement of anxiety in junior and senior high school students, and in neuropsychiatric, medical, and surgical patients.

The STAI A-Trait scale consists of 20 statements that people use to describe how they generally feel. The A-State scale also consists of 20 statements, but the instructions require subjects to indicate how they feel at a particular moment in time. These scales are printed on opposite sides of a single test form.

A normative sample of undergraduate college students was tested and retested. The students retested after one hour were successively exposed during the test-retest interval to the following experimental conditions: a brief period of relaxation training; a difficult IQ test; and a film that depicted accidents resulting in serious injury or death.

The test-retest correlations for the A-Trait scale were reasonably high, ranging from .73 to .86 while those for the A-State scale were relatively low, ranging from .16 to .54, with a median r of only .32 for the six sub-groups. The low r's for the
A-State scale were anticipated, of course, because a valid measure of A-State should reflect the influence of unique situational factors existing at the time of testing.

Given the transitory nature of anxiety states, measures of internal consistency such as the alpha coefficient would seem to provide a more meaningful index of the reliability of A-State scales than test-retest correlations. Alpha coefficients for the STAI scales were computed by the formula K-R20 as modified by Cronbach (1951) for the normative samples. These reliability coefficients, which ranged from .83 to .92 for A-State were included along with those for A-Trait which were equally high. Thus, the internal consistency of both STAI subscales is reasonably good.

In the construction of the STAI, individual items were required to meet prescribed A-State and A-Trait validity criteria at each stage of the test development process in order to be retained for further evaluation and validation. Correlations with the IPAT Anxiety Scale (Cattell E. & Scheler, 1962) The Taylor (1953) Manifest Anxiety Scale (TMAS), the Zuckerman (1960) Affect Adjective Checklist (AACl), General Form, are reported. The average correlation between the STAI and IPAT and the TMAS
is .81 and somewhat lower for the AACL (Spielbeger, Gorsuch and Lushene, 1970, pp. 3, 9-10).

**Design.** The design of this study was the utilization of selected variables deployed in combination to discriminate between black middle school students from father-absent homes and black middle school students from father-present homes. The father-absent home contained students whose father was absent because of death, divorce, desertion, separation or illegitimacy. The father-present home contained students who were living with both parents. Comparisons were made between the two groups on ability, standardized achievement, GPA, attendance, level of anxiety, level of aggression and age. In essence, the basic design was one of a comparison of father-absent children, with father-present children using the previously mentioned and arbitrarily selected variables in combination.

The representative sample resulted from a 20 percent random sampling of the black eighth grade population of the eight regular middle schools of a large urban school division in central Virginia. While several investigators conducting similar studies used the matching of a few dependent variables to insure equalization of the two groups to be studied, no attempt was made by this investigator to employ this technique. Popham (1967) summarized the weak-
nesses of trying to match dependent variables to form groups when he reported:

The matching of groups has a time-honored tradition in educational research, but currently its only merits are historical. In recent years the technique of matching to equalize groups has been rejected as a useful procedure by almost every prominent research design specialist. For every variable on which groups are made "equal," there are probably many more relevant variables on which the groups are extremely different. These dissimilarities often tend to be more influential than the few characteristics on which the groups were carefully matched. As an efficient alternative to matching, research specialists now recommend a randomization procedure. (p. 7)

The black eighth grade population consisted of 1758 students from which a 352 student sample was taken. The sample was divided into the two groups; a father-absent group and a father-present group. Thirty-six students were excluded from the investigation because of insufficient data.

Data were collected by a previously designated guidance
counselor in each middle school and primarily from cumulative and attendance records. The data were recorded on a questionnaire (Student Profile Sheet - Appendix A) designed for this purpose by the researcher.

**Statistical analysis.** A discriminate analysis was performed on the collected data to determine whether the selected variables would discriminate between the two groups (black middle school students from father-absent homes and black middle school students from father-present homes) on the basis of the set of measures.

**Summary of methodology.** With the permission of the director of the Department of Planning and Development of the school division, the study was conducted using a 20 percent random sampling of the 1758 black eight regular middle schools. Thirty-six students were excluded. Previously specified data were collected by a designated guidance counselor in each school.

The design of this study was the utilization of selected variables deployed in combination to discriminate between black middle school children from father-present homes. One group resided in a father-absent home and one group resided in a father-present home.

No attempt was made to match individuals to insure equaliza-
tion as was often done in similar studies. The technique of randomization was employed. The collected, sorted and compiled data were then statistically analyzed using discriminant analysis.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether certain variables (ability, achievement, grade point average, attendance, number of siblings, sex, age, the level of aggression, and the level of anxiety) utilized as a group discriminated between black middle school children from father-absent homes and black middle school children from father-present homes.

The theoretical rationale for this study was the conflict between the findings of Coleman et al (1966) and Moynihan (1965) and (1967). Coleman et al (1966) stated "contrary to much that has been written, the structural integrity of the home (principally the father's presence or absence) shows very little relationship to achievement for Negroes" (p. 302). Moynihan (1965) asserted "at the heart of the deterioration of the fabric of Negro society is the deterioration of the Negro family. The matrifocal black family is a hindrance to success striving" (p. 1). Moynihan (1967), cited in Swann (1974), concluded that the absence of the father contributes to poor scholarship on the part of children and a high rate of delinquency (pp. 18-24).

The purpose of the chapter was to present the findings which
resulted from the statistical treatment of the collected data. The findings are recorded in both tabular and narrative forms.

This chapter covers the following areas:

1. A description of the sample.
2. A discrimination between black middle school students from father-absent homes and black middle school students from father-present homes.
3. A discrimination between black middle school boy students from father-absent homes and black middle school girl students from father-absent homes.
4. A summary of the chapter.

The population for this study was a 20 percent random sampling (352 students of whom 316 students were finally chosen for this study) of the black eighth grade population of the eight regular middle schools of an urban school district in central Virginia. Of the 316 students 167 (53%) were from father-absent homes. Table I gives a breakdown of the sample.

Descriptive statistics of the dependent variables are presented in Table 2. These statistics resulted from the data that were collected on each subject and transferred to the Student Profile Sheets (Appendix A).
Table 1

Number of Subjects in the Sample

(n=316)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
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<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
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<td>26</td>
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<tr>
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<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
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<tr>
<td>Father-present Boys</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<td>30</td>
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<tr>
<td>Father-present Girls</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
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</table>

NOTE. Total sample was 316 students of whom 167 were father-absent students and 149 were father-present students.
Table 2

Descriptive Statistics

of the Dependent Variables

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
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<th>Highest</th>
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<td>Age</td>
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<tr>
<td>SRAmath</td>
<td>28.65</td>
<td>20.42</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAread</td>
<td>27.50</td>
<td>20.09</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEA</td>
<td>27.50</td>
<td>20.09</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The variables (with their abbreviation in parentheses) were:

1. Average days absent in sixth and seventh grades
   (Absent)
2. Age in years (Age)
3. Aggression score (Aggress)
4. State anxiety score (Anxstate)
5. Trait anxiety score (Anxtrait)
6. Average GPA in sixth and seventh grade (Grade)
7. Number of siblings (Sibs)
8. SRA Composite percentile (SRAComp)
9. SRA Math percentile (SRAmath)
10. SRA Reading percentile (SRAread)
11. STEA percentile (STEA)

This study utilized these variables in concert to discriminate between black middle school boys and girls from father-absent homes.

Restatement of the First Hypothesis. Selected variables (ability, achievement, grade point average, attendance, number of siblings, sex, age, the level of aggression and the level of anxiety) utilized in combination will discriminate between the black middle school students from father-present homes.
To test the first hypotheses answers to the following questions were sought: (a) Do students from father-absent homes score lower than father-present students on the math and reading areas and on the composite scores of the SRA Achievement Series? (b) Do students from father-absent homes score lower than students from father-present homes as measured by the Short Test of Educational Ability (STEA), a group ability test? (c) Do students from father-absent homes maintain a lower grade point average than students from father-present homes? (d) Do students from father-absent homes demonstrate a higher level of aggressive behavior than students from father-present homes as measured by the Aggression Scale? (e) Do students from father-absent homes demonstrate a higher level of anxiety than students from father-present homes as measured by the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory? (f) Do students from father-absent homes come from larger families (total number of siblings) than students from father-present homes? (g) Do students from father-absent homes demonstrate a lower level of attendance than students from father-present homes?

To test the first hypotheses the following procedure was followed:
1. t-tests were performed on the means of the identified variables.

2. A stepwise multiple regression was performed to determine which variables would form the best and most parsimonious model in discrimination between father-absent and father-present students.

3. A discriminant analysis was performed to determine how well the identified variables discriminated between the father-absent and father-present groups.

A test of the differences between means of the father-absent and father-present groups using t-tests is found in Table 3. The mean score of the variable STEA for the father-present group was 7.07 percentile points higher than the mean score of the variable STEA for the father-absent group. The mean score of the SRAread variable for the father-present group was 3.63 percentile points higher than the mean score of the SRAread variable for the father-absent group.

The stepwise multiple regression identified the variables, STEA and SRAread as the best and most parsimonious model (see Table 4). The correlation between these two variables was .81. The discriminant analysis using these two variables predicted 115 of 167 (69%) father-absent students correctly and 81 of 149 (54%)
Table 3

t-Tests Between Father-Absent and Father-Present Students on Selected Variables

(n=316)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Father-absent</th>
<th>Father-present</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>12.60</td>
<td>11.43</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>14.36</td>
<td>14.23</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggress</td>
<td>115.90</td>
<td>115.48</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxstate</td>
<td>39.11</td>
<td>37.91</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxtrait</td>
<td>41.81</td>
<td>42.03</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>-1.52</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sibs</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>-0.49</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAcomp</td>
<td>31.95</td>
<td>36.44</td>
<td>-1.84</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAmath</td>
<td>35.87</td>
<td>39.21</td>
<td>-1.29</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAread</td>
<td>26.93</td>
<td>30.56</td>
<td>-1.58</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEA</td>
<td>24.17</td>
<td>31.24</td>
<td>-3.17</td>
<td>.002a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Significant past alpha = .05 level
Table 4

Stepwise Multiple Regression Results:

Predicting Father absence/Father presence

From Selected Variables

(n=316)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Entered</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$R^2$ Change</th>
<th>Test of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STEA</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td></td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAread</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxstate</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a This variable did not discriminate significantly. It and all subsequent variables were not used in the discrimination analysis.
father-present students correctly. In total, this model predicted 196 of 316 (62%) father-absent and father-present students correctly while predicting 120 (38%) incorrectly (see Table 5).

Based on the findings, the first hypothesis (selected variables utilized in combination will discriminate between black middle school students from father-present homes) was accepted at the .05 level of significance.

The investigation provided the following answers to the specific questions previously identified in the hypothesis:

(a) Father-absent students did not score lower than father-present students on the math and reading areas and on the composite scores of the SRA Achievement Series.

(b) Father-absent students did score significantly lower than father-present students as measured by the Short Test of Educational Ability (STEA).

(c) Father-absent students did not maintain a lower grade point average than father-present students.

(d) Father-absent students did not demonstrate a higher level of aggressive behavior than father-present students as measured by the Aggression Scale.

(e) Father-absent students did not demonstrate a higher
Table 5

Results of the Discriminant Analysis
Using the Best and Most Parsimonious Model
(Variables STEA and SRAread)
(n=316)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual</th>
<th>Father-absent</th>
<th>Father-present</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father-absent</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father-present</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
level of anxiety than father-present students as measured by the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory.

(f) Father-absent students did not come from larger families (total number of siblings) than father-present students.

(g) Father-absent students did not demonstrate a lower level of attendance than father-present students.

Restatement of the Second Hypothesis. Selected variables (ability, achievement, grade point average, attendance, number of siblings, age, the level of aggression and the level of anxiety) utilized in combination will discriminate between black middle school male students from father-absent homes and black middle school female students from father-absent homes.

To test the second hypothesis answers to the following questions were sought:

(a) Do male students from father-absent homes score lower than female students from father-present homes on the math and reading areas and on the composite scores of the SRA Achievement Series?

(b) Do male students from father-absent homes score lower than female students from father-absent homes
as measured by the STEA, a group ability test?

(c) Do male students from father-absent homes maintain a lower grade point average than female students from father-absent homes?

(d) Do male students from father-absent homes demonstrate a higher level of aggressive behavior than female students from father-absent homes as measured by the Aggression Scale?

(e) Do male students from father-absent homes demonstrate a higher level of anxiety than female students from father-absent homes as measured by the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory?

(f) Do male students from father-absent homes come from larger families (total number of siblings) than female students from father-absent homes?

(g) Do male students from father-absent homes demonstrate a lower level of attendance than female students from father-absent homes?

To test the second hypothesis the following procedure was followed:

1. t-tests were performed on the means of the identified
variables.

2. A stepwise multiple regression was performed to determine which variables would form the best and most parsimonious model.

3. A discriminant analysis was performed to determine whether the identified variables would discriminate between the boy students from father-absent homes and the girl students from father-absent homes.

A test of the differences between the means of father-absent boys and father-absent girls using t-tests is presented in Table 6.

The variables that were selected (stepwise multiple regression) to participate in the discriminant analysis are presented in Table 7 and the means of the variables by sex are shown in Table 8. The identified variables were Age, Anxstate, Grade, Absent, STEA and SRAcom as the best and most parsimonious model. The correlations among the variables of the model are shown in Table 9.

The discriminant analysis using the six variables above predicted 58 of 87 (67%) father-absent boys correctly, and 55 of 80 (69%) father-absent girls correctly. In total the model predicted 113 (68%) of 167 father-absent boys and father-absent girls correctly while predicting 54 (32%) incorrectly (see Table 10).
Table 6

$t$-Tests Between Father-Absent Boys and Father-Absent Girls

(n=167; boys = 81 and girls = 80)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>12.12</td>
<td>13.11</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>14.63</td>
<td>14.07</td>
<td>-3.70</td>
<td>.0003a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggress</td>
<td>114.34</td>
<td>117.59</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxstate</td>
<td>37.76</td>
<td>40.59</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>.03a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxtrait</td>
<td>40.90</td>
<td>42.80</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>.0004a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sibs</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAcomp</td>
<td>26.94</td>
<td>37.39</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>.001a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAmath</td>
<td>30.23</td>
<td>42.00</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>.001a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAread</td>
<td>24.46</td>
<td>29.63</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEA</td>
<td>23.34</td>
<td>25.06</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a Significant Past Alpha = .05 level*
Stepwise Multiple Regression Results

Predicting Father-Absent Boys/Father-Absent Girls From Selected Variables

(n=167)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$R^2$ Change</th>
<th>Test of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td></td>
<td>.0003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxstate</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEA</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAcomp</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxtrait $^a$</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$ This variable did not discriminate significantly. It and all subsequent variables were not used in the discriminate analysis.
Table 8

Differences of the Means of the
Selected Variables by Sex
(n=167)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>+.56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxstate</td>
<td></td>
<td>+2.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td>+.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absent</td>
<td></td>
<td>+.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEA</td>
<td></td>
<td>+1.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAComp</td>
<td></td>
<td>+10.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9
Pooled Within Group
Correlations Between Variables
Used to Discriminate Between
Boys and Girls in Father-Absent Homes
(n=167)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Anxstate</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Absent</th>
<th>STEA</th>
<th>SRAcomp</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>-.44**</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>-.46**</td>
<td>-.57**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxstate</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.29*</td>
<td>.55**</td>
<td>.65**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.27*</td>
<td>-.25*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.84**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**P .001
*P .05
### Table 10

**Results of the Discriminant Analysis**

Using the Best and Most Parsimonious Model

(Variables Age, Anxstate, Grade, Absent, STEA, SRAcomp)

(n=167)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual</th>
<th>Father-absent Boys</th>
<th>Father-absent Girls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father-absent Boys</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father-absent Girls</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the findings, the second hypothesis (selected variables utilized in combination will discriminate between black middle school female students from father-absent homes and black middle school male students from father-absent homes) was accepted at the .05 level of significance.

**Summary.** To test the first hypothesis a stepwise multiple regression was performed on several selected variables. The procedure identified the variables STEA and SRAread as the best and most parsimonious model. A discriminant analysis, using this model, predicted 196 (62%) father-absent and father-present students correctly. The hypothesis was accepted at the .05 level of significance.

To test the second hypothesis, a stepwise multiple regression was performed on several selected variables. The procedure identified the variables Age, Anxstate, Grade, Absent, STEA and SRAcomp as the best and most parsimonious model. A discriminant analysis, using the model, predicted 113 (68%) father-absent boys and girls correctly. The hypothesis was accepted at the .05 level of significance.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The purpose of this investigation was to determine whether certain variables (ability, achievement, grade point average, attendance, number of siblings, sex, age, the level of aggression, and the level of anxiety) utilized as a group discriminated between black middle school students from father-absent and father-present homes. For the purpose of this study a father-absent home was defined as one in which the student was living with his mother only. No attempt was made to differentiate between the cause (divorce, separation, death, illegitimacy) of the father's absence.

The sample was comprised of 316 black middle school students of whom 167 were identified as members of father-absent homes and 149 were identified as members of father-present homes. The following two hypotheses were tested:

1. Selected variables (ability, achievement, grade point average, attendance, number of siblings, sex, age, the level of aggression, and the level of anxiety) utilized in combination will discriminate between black middle school students from father-absent
homes and black middle school students from father-present homes.

2. Selected variables (ability, achievement, grade point average, attendance, number of siblings, age, the level of aggression and the level of anxiety) utilized in combination will discriminate between black middle school boys from father-absent homes and black middle school girls from father-absent homes.

Both hypotheses were accepted. It was found that selected variables discriminated between the two groups identified in the first and second hypotheses.

Conclusions. The following conclusions are based on the findings gained from this investigation:

1. Two variables, STEA and SRAread, utilized in combination discriminated between black middle school students from father-absent homes and black middle school students from father-present homes. There was a significant difference between the two groups as measured by STEA. This was not true for SRAread.

2. Six variables (Age, Anxstate, Grade, Absent, STEA and SRAcomp) utilized in combination discriminated
between black middle school male students from father-absent homes and black middle school female students from father-absent homes. There was a significant difference between the two groups as measured by Age, Anxstate, Grade and SRAcomp.

3. Nine variables (Absent, Age, Aggress, Anxstate, Anxtrait, Grade, Sibs, SRAcomp, and SRAmath) did not discriminate between the father-absent and father-present groups.

4. Five variables (Aggress, Anxtrait, Sibs, SRAmath and SRAread) did not discriminate between the boy and girl students of the father-absent group.

5. There was no significant difference between the father-absent and father-present groups with respect to the variables Absent, Age, Aggress, Anxstate, Anxtrait, Grade, Sibs, SRAcomp, and SRAmath; however, the means of the variables favored the father-present group except in the case of the variables Anxtrait and Sibs.

6. There was no significant difference between male and female students of the father-absent group with
respect to the variables Aggress, Anxtrait, Sibs, SRAmath, and SRAread; however, the average of the means of the variables SRAmath and SRAread favored the females by 11 percentile points, and an average of the means of the variables Agress, Anxtrait, and Sibs favored the males by two points.

7. The males from father-absent homes were significantly older than females from father-absent homes. This probably suggests that the males had been retained at various grade levels more often than the females.

8. The effects found for sex (females perform better than males on achievement measures) were consistent with the results reported by Solomon et al (1972).

9. The females from father-absent homes demonstrated a 

   significantly higher level of anxiety than the males as measured by the A-State. According to the norms for this instrument females are expected to demonstrate a slightly higher level of anxiety.

Discussion. It was found that the variables STEA and SRAread discriminated between father-absent and father-present black middle school students. However, the deterioration of the Negro
family and the matrifocal black family being a hindrance to success striving as asserted by Moynihan (1965) were not evident as a result of this investigation. While two variables (STEA and SRAread) discriminated between the two groups, nine variables (Absent, Age, Aggress, Anxstate, Anxtrait, Grade, Sibs, SRAcomp, and SRAmath) did not.

Contrary to Coleman et al's (1966) findings, this investigation revealed a relationship between father absence and achievement when deploying the variables STEA and SRAread in combination and individually. While the other variables did not discriminate significantly, the mean scores of the variables favored the father-present students in a majority of the cases.

Implications for Further Study. Because caution and discretion should be exercised in making generalizations on the results of this investigation the following recommendations are made:

1. This study should be extended by using black subjects from the second and eleventh grades of this school district to determine whether the results would be similar or whether the students' age or school experience is a contributing factor.

2. This study should be extended by using white subjects
of this school district to determine whether father absence is more or less of a factor with white students than black students with respect to achievement.

3. This study should be extended using black eighth grade subjects from one of the suburban school districts adjacent to this school district to determine the relationship between father absence and achievement of students from a higher SEL.

4. The superintendent of the school division from which the sample used in this study was taken reported that students in this school district have consistently achieved higher on the SRA Achievement Series than the Short Test of Educational Ability (STEA) suggested that they should achieve. Thorndike and Hagen (1961) concluded "since the intercorrelations of the subtests [of the STEA] run between .50 and .65, the difference between the scores are likely to be too unreliable to be useful. Samples on which norms are based (two school systems) are very limited" (p. 575). Green concluded "it seems clear that the STEA fails in attempting to be a satisfactory short form estimate of educational
ability. Its principal downfall can be traced to short-comings inherent in the use of multiple choice items in short tests. The STEA becomes progressively more unsatisfactory for differentiating among the lower two-thirds to one-third of the students depending on the level." Weitz reported "limited reliability and the lack of predictive validity information reduce its [STEA] usefulness. This obviously raises questions as to whether there is a significant difference between the ability of the father-absent group and the ability of the father-present group. This is especially true since there was no significant difference between the two groups on any of the achievement and social adjustment measures used in this investigation. Therefore this study should be extended using another group ability measure.

5. Based on the findings of this study, administrators, counselors and teachers should expect no less (with reference to achievement, performance, social adjustment and possibly ability) from black eighth grade children in urban schools from father-absent homes.
The black matriarchal home seems not to be a threat to the black family in general nor to success striving in particular. Society in general and the school in particular should place more emphasis on the strengths of the black family rather than its structure. The compensatory skills of the black matriarch should be recognized and valued. The black female whether she is the mother, the grandmother, an aunt, or an older sister has traditionally been, currently is, and will probably continue to be a pillar of strength in the black family.
APPENDIXES
### Student Profile Sheet

**School**

**Name**

**Background**

Name ____________________________ Last, First

Age ___ ___ Years Months

Sex: □ Male □ Female

Is the father present or absent? ______________

How long? (Explain) ____________________________

Number of siblings ______

**Attendance**

Number of days absent in sixth grade ______

Number of days absent in seventh grade ______

**Grades** Indicate (A, B, C, D, F, not taken) for each course and grade

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>6th Grade</th>
<th>7th Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>_________</td>
<td>_________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>_________</td>
<td>_________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Studies</td>
<td>_________</td>
<td>_________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>_________</td>
<td>_________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>_________</td>
<td>_________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Average (A=4) ______

**Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Type</th>
<th>Percentiles</th>
<th>Stanine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STEA</td>
<td>________</td>
<td>32-34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRA Mathematics</td>
<td>________</td>
<td>35-37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>________</td>
<td>38-40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composite</td>
<td>________</td>
<td>41-43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety Score</td>
<td>(State)</td>
<td>44-45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Trait)</td>
<td>46-47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggression Score</td>
<td>________</td>
<td>48-50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Appendix B**

**HOW I FEEL**

Here are a number of statements. In front of each one, there are 2 little boxes. Read each statement carefully and then put an X in one of the 2 boxes to show how you feel about that statement. If you agree strongly, put your X in the left-hand box. If you disagree strongly, put your X in the right-hand box. The words at the top of the columns of the boxes show what each box means.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 A</td>
<td>It makes me uncomfortable to see two of my friends fighting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 D</td>
<td>If someone gets hurt in an auto accident, I usually try to get a good view of what happened.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 B</td>
<td>When I am hungry, I would like to eat something sweet (like cake) better than something filling (like a meat or peanut butter sandwich).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 A</td>
<td>A boxing or wrestling match is more exciting when it's a real grudge fight, and the fighters are really mad at each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 A</td>
<td>Every club should have a set of definite rules for the members, and someone should be chosen to enforce the rules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 A</td>
<td>It upsets me to think that some thoughtless word or crack of mine might hurt someone's feelings.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7 A There is a good chance that radiation from atomic bombs will kill off the human race.

8 B There are really important differences between boys and girls in the kinds of books they like to read.

9 A When I get angry, I usually feel bad afterward.

10 A A lot of adults seem to have it in for kids, and always are causing them trouble.

11 D I cannot imagine what it would be like really to consider committing suicide.

12 A Hitting somebody smaller than you is absolutely never excusable.

13 B I think it is important for boys and girls of my age to begin thinking about how to get ahead in life.

14 A It makes me nervous to hear a gang of boys getting argumentative even when I'm not involved.

15 A Big dogs are likely to be dangerous.

16 A Laws against fighting ought to be more strictly enforced.

17 B I usually feel happier on the week-ends than I do during the week.

18 A Sometimes I feel that I have about as many enemies as I have friends.

19 A When I get too angry, I'm liable to get in trouble.

20 B A romantic movie always leaves me feeling dreamy afterward.

21 A Sometimes I feel that there are so many bad people in the world that even my own town is about as dangerous to live in as a real jungle.
22 A It is all right for a teacher to criticize someone in front of the class if that person has broken a rule.

23 B If I had a chance to play a part in a Hollywood movie, I would enjoy it very much.

24 A There are too many vicious crimes described in the newspapers.

25 A When someone does not pay attention to me, or just seems to look right through me, it is usually because he is secretly mad at me.

26 A If an older boy is mean to a younger one, the younger one has a perfect right to get even with him in any way he can, even in some secret or sneaky way.

27 B Stamp-collecting is one of my favorite hobbies.

28 B I usually feel pretty happy when I wake up in the morning.

29 D I like to watch a real man-sized slugging match in a movie or on TV.

30 A Most of my troubles have been started by other people.

31 A Sometimes an actual fight is the only way to settle an argument.

32 B When you are feeling lonesome and unhappy, eating something is the best thing to do.

33 A Sometimes I have dreams in which somebody hurts me.

34 A There have been times when I was so angry I felt like practically killing myself.

35 D At school, teachers should never permit any pushing or shoving among the children because someone might get hurt.
36 B I would like to be very good at mechanical things, such as fixing automobiles or using power tools in a shop.

37 A Arguing nearly always leads to trouble in one way or another.

38 A People seem to find fault with me more than I deserve.

39 A I have had more accidents in which I was injured than most people my age.

40 A I don't see anything especially wrong about a fight between two gangs of teen-agers; it's their business and adults should keep out of it.

41 B Every boy and girl should know how to dance before high school age.

42 A Sometimes when I have been out alone at night, I have had the feeling that somebody was following me, even though I could never prove it.

43 D There is too much fighting and arguing shown on TV.

44 A My friends get mad at me more often than I get mad at them.

45 B When I am tired from playing outdoors, I like to be alone while I rest.

46 A If a sixth grader starts a fight, he would be punished in some way, no matter why he started it.

47 B It is really fun to save money and watch your savings add up.

48 D Football would be a better game if you could be sure nobody would get tough and mean.
49 B I do not like to give a report in front of the whole class.

50 A It is all right to hurt someone as a punishment for doing wrong, but that is absolutely the only time one person should ever hurt another.

51 B It makes me nervous when another person tries to be too friendly with me.

52 A You have to stand up for your rights -- even to the extent of fighting -- if you want to get along in the world.

53 B At my age, girls are usually more interested in dancing than boys are.
## Appendix C

**SELF-EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE**

Developed by C. D. Spielberger, R. L. Gorsuch and R. Lushene

**STAI FORM X-1**

| NAME ______________________________ | DATE ______________________________ |

**DIRECTIONS:** A number of statements which people have used to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then blacken the appropriate circle to the right of the statement to indicate how you feel right now, that is, at this moment. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe your present feelings best.

1. I feel calm .......................................................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
2. I feel secure .......................................................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
3. I am tense ............................................................ (5) (6) (7) (8)
4. I am regretful ......................................................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
5. I feel at ease ......................................................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
6. I feel upset ........................................................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
7. I am presently worrying over possible misfortunes .... (5) (6) (7) (8)
8. I feel rested ........................................................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
9. I feel anxious ......................................................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
10. I feel comfortable .................................................. (5) (6) (7) (8)
11. I feel self-confident ............................................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
12. I feel nervous ....................................................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
13. I am jittery ............................................................ (5) (6) (7) (8)
15. I am relaxed ......................................................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
16. I feel content ........................................................ (5) (6) (7) (8)
17. I am worried ....................................................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
18. I feel over-excited and “rattled” ......................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
19. I feel joyful .......................................................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
20. I feel pleasant ..................................................... (5) (6) (7) (8)
SELF-EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE
STAI FORM X-2

NAME ____________________    DATE ____________________

DIRECTIONS: A number of statements which people have used to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then blacken in the appropriate circle to the right of the statement to indicate how you generally feel. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe how you generally feel.

21. I feel pleasant ................................................................. 0 0 0 0
22. I tire quickly .................................................................................. 0 0 0 0
23. I feel like crying ................................................................................... 0 0 0 0
24. I wish I could be as happy as others seem to be ........................................ 0 0 0 0
25. I am losing out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough ... 0 0 0 0
26. I feel rested .............................................................................................. 0 0 0 0
27. I am "calm, cool, and collected" .......................................................... 0 0 0 0
28. I feel that difficulties are piling up so that I cannot overcome them .......... 0 0 0 0
29. I worry too much over something that really doesn't matter ................... 0 0 0 0
30. I am happy ........................................................................................................ 0 0 0 0
31. I am inclined to take things hard ............................................................. 0 0 0 0
32. I lack self-confidence.................................................................................. 0 0 0 0
33. I feel secure ................................................................................................. 0 0 0 0
34. I try to avoid facing a crisis or difficulty ....................................................... 0 0 0 0
35. I feel blue ........................................................................................................... 0 0 0 0
36. I am content .................................................................................................. 0 0 0 0
37. Some unimportant thought runs through my mind and bothers me ......... 0 0 0 0
38. I take disappointments so keenly that I can't put them out of my mind ...... 0 0 0 0
39. I am a steady person ....................................................................................... 0 0 0 0
40. I get in a state of tension or turmoil as I think over my recent concerns and interests.................................................................................................................. 0 0 0 0
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Abstract

A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER-ABSENT HOMES AND FATHER-PRESENT HOMES AND THE ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT OF BLACK MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS

Joe Louis Simmons, Ed. D.

The College of William and Mary in Virginia, September 1981

Chairman: Professor Royce W. Chesser

The purpose of this study was to determine whether certain variables, utilized as a group, discriminated between black middle school children from father-absent homes and black middle school children from father-present homes. The selected variables used were ability, achievement, grade point average, attendance, number of siblings, sex, age, the level of aggression and the level of anxiety. The theoretical rationale was based primarily on the conflict between Coleman's (1966) and Moynihan's (1965) findings. Coleman (1966) asserted "contrary to much that has been written, the structural integrity of the home (principally the father's presence or absence) shows very little relationship to achievement for Negroes" (p. 302). Moynihan (1965) reported "the matrifocal black family is a hindrance to success striving" (p. 1).

It was hypothesized that selected variables (ability, achievement, grade point average, attendance, number of siblings, sex, age, the level of aggression and the level of anxiety) utilized in combination will discriminate between black middle school children from father-present homes and father-absent homes.

It was found that two of the variables discriminated between black middle school students from father-absent homes and black middle school students from father-present homes. It was also found that some of the variables discriminated between boys and girls within the father-absent group.

Further study is needed to determine why the father-absent students scored 7.07 percentile points lower than the father-present students on the STEA, an ability test.